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ABSTRACT

A study examined the effectiveness of a pilot literature-based reading program. Subjects, sixth grade students at Galveston Elementary School, were grouped into high, middle, and low ability groups containing 20, 25, and 13 students respectively. Reading instruction was provided during 45-minute class periods 5 times each week. Instruction centered on reading full-length texts of children's books considered appropriate for sixth graders. Subjects completed a reading attitude survey and a reading achievement test at the beginning and end of the school year. Qualitative data (classroom observations, interviews with students and teachers, and teachers' anecdotal records) were also collected and reviewed. Results indicate that: (1) many students had a better attitude toward reading at the end of the year than when they entered sixth grade; (2) the average reading achievement levels of subjects in the middle and high groups demonstrated maintenance plus a slight gain; (3) teachers and the majority of students interviewed expressed a preference for literature-based reading over basal reading instruction; and (4) while the reading attitudes of subjects in the low group improved, their reading achievement scores showed a considerable loss. This strongly suggests that the structure of the pilot program did not meet the needs of the low group. Findings suggest that ability-grouping should be eliminated, in alignment with literature-based approaches described in professional literature which help students develop strategies used by proficient readers. (Two journal articles which review critical elements and potential flaws in literature-based reading programs, an appendix containing comparative data summaries for the reading attitude survey, and the survey instrument are attached.) (RS)

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Galveston Elementary School:
A Study of a Sixth Grade
Literature-based Reading Program

Final Report

September, 1990

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Galveston Elementary School

A Study of a Sixth Grade Literature-based Reading Program

Object of the Study

During the 1989-90 school year, the sixth grade reading program at Galveston Elementary School changed from basal text instruction to literature-based instruction. This study is a review of that pilot program during its first year of operation.

Context of the Study

Sixth grade students were ability-grouped into one of three classes for reading instruction (a high, middle and low group). Reading instruction was provided during 45-minute class periods five times each week. Instruction occurred at the same time each morning for all classes.

Instruction centered on reading full-length texts of children's books considered appropriate for sixth graders. Teachers appeared to make text selections based on books considered to be good children's literature, on topics of interest to students, and with readability levels appropriate for sixth graders. To a lesser degree, the availability of commercial materials for the book (e.g., vocabulary exercises, comprehension questions, and post-reading activities) seemed to play a part in the selection of core texts.

Paperback books were available as "core texts"; that is, the entire class or a group of students read the same book at the same

time. Each class read their first core book as a whole group. The high and middle group students chose one of two or three options for the remaining core books and read in groups of 10 to 12 students. The low group students continued to read as a whole group throughout the year. Class sessions were used for reading, discussing and answering questions about each core text. The teachers used teacher-produced or commercial worksheets based on these books as sources of vocabulary and comprehension exercises for students.

Students were also required to do self-selected reading of children's literature. The teachers promoted reading from award winning books (such as the Newbery Award books) and certain reading lists (such as Young Hoosiers and the Electronic Bookshelf). Standards for this outside reading varied according to the ability-based classes. The high group was required to read six book each six weeks, while the middle group read four books and the low group read three books during the same period.

Report card grades were generally based on students' classwork (the vocabulary and comprehension worksheets), their recreational reading, and vocabulary quizzes. At least one classroom scheduled silent sustained reading for one class period each week. Students completed projects (e.g., draw an art mural, design a book jacket) for some of the core texts.

Purposes of this Study

This study is a review of this pilot program's operation and outcomes. Focusing questions for this review are:

1. Do the sixth grade students show an improved attitude toward reading after a year in this program?

2. Do the students make the expected reading achievement growth in this program (i.e., at a minimum, they maintain their relative position based on national percentile scores)?

3. What refinements can be suggested based on the initial year's experience to provide a strong reading instructional program for sixth grade students?

Procedures

1. Students completed reading attitude surveys in fall, 1989, and spring, 1990. The results from these surveys were compared.

2. The same reading attitude survey was administered in spring, 1990 to sixth graders from another elementary school within the corporation. The results from this "control group" who received basal text reading instruction were compared to the spring survey results of students in this pilot project.

3. The reading achievement test results for the Galveston Elementary sixth graders were compared from spring, 1989 (pretest) to spring, 1990 (posttest). The test results from the same control group for this same period were also compared to the pilot group's test results. The amount of reading completed by the pilot group on the Electronic Bookshelf was also compared with the results from their spring, 1990 standardized reading test results.

4. Qualitative data about the program were collected and reviewed. These included classroom observations, interviews with students and teachers, timelines of core text instruction, and teachers' anecdotal records.

Results: Pretest-Posttest Reading Attitude Surveys

The sixth grade students at Galveston Elementary completed a survey entitled How I Feel About Reading in fall, 1989, and again in spring, 1990. The fall survey for the low group had 31 items and the one for the middle and high groups had 23 items; the spring survey for all three groups had 31 items. The percentage responses to survey items were compared for the total group and by ability-grouped classes for the 23 common items. The survey instrument and the comparative data are included in Appendix B.

When contrasting posttest to pretest results, the total group had modest shifts in the range of 10% to 15% on nine of the 23 items compared. However, none of these items reflected strong attitude shifts for the total group; shifts were most obvious when looking at group level results. Changes were noted on 11 items for the low group, three items for the middle group, and four items for the high group.

The pattern of attitude shifts were both positive and negative. It was positive that the low group reported reading more at home as well as reading different kinds of books, newspapers, and magazines (items #5, 19, 20, 21). This group also indicated a positive shift in their reason for reading: "because I think I should" rather than "because someone tells them to read" (item #4). The low and high groups reflected positive attitudes toward reading class by indicating that they wanted more time for reading class (item #7). The high group also indicated a positive shift by widening the variety of stories they are interested in reading (item #8).

There appeared to be a negative shift in the readers' interests in what was read (items #11 and #15) and in the low group's opinion of reading class work as "just something to do" (item #17). The middle group's shifts seemed to reflect dissatisfaction in how their class was conducted: class went too slow (item #12) and the activities "do not help me" (item #13). Of particular concern was the negative shift of the low group's self-perceptions as readers as indicated by an increase in those who considered themselves "one of the poorest readers" (item #23).

Results: Attitude Survey Comparisons with a Control Group

The spring, 1990 attitude survey results for Galveston Elementary sixth graders were compared with the results from the sixth grade at another elementary school in the corporation. The comparative data are provided in Appendix B. Moderate to noticeable differences were seen on 10 of the 31 survey items, nine of which indicated a more positive attitude toward reading and reading instruction for the Galveston sixth graders. Overall, the Galveston students responded more favorably than the control group students on 22 of the 31 items about reading and their reading instructional program.

Twenty-seven percent more of the Galveston students indicated they would be responsive to recommendations about a good book (item #3) and 19 percent more said that they read because they think they should (item #4). Galveston sixth graders seemed to enjoy reading class more than the control group. Twenty-nine percent more wanted reading class to last longer (item #10) and 21 percent more thought reading class is "fun" (item #17).

Nineteen percent fewer Galveston students wished they could "skip reading class" (item #16) while 22 percent more of the control group students said reading class seems to go slow (item #12). The control group students seemed less satisfied with their reading materials. Thirty-four percent more said the stories in reading class were "not interesting" (item #11) and 31 percent more said the books in reading class were "very dull" (item #15). Twenty-seven percent more of the control group students reported that they spend "very little time

reading" (item #1). However, 54 percent of the Galveston students reported liking "a few kinds of stories" while 52 percent of the control group reported liking "many kinds of stories" (item #8).

On the 10 items cited for noticeable differences between the groups, it was common to find a ratio of 2:1 and 3:1 more positive responses from Galveston students than from control group students (e.g., wish reading class were longer; reading class is fun). On negative items (e.g., books in class are very dull; wish were we could skip reading class), the reverse ratio was often true.

Standardized Achievement Test Results

Students' achievement in reading is measured annually on a standardized test. In spring, 1989 students took the California Achievement Test (CAT), 1985 edition; in spring, 1990 the Indiana State Test of Educational Progress (ISTEP) was administered. The national norms for both of these tests are based on the 1985 edition of the CAT, making pretest-posttest comparisons possible.

Statistical analyses based on the students' national percentile scores were calculated using the 1989 CAT and 1990 ISTEP vocabulary, reading comprehension, and total reading scores. Pearson product moment correlations and general linear models analyses were done on the total group's scores and for each of the ability-grouped classes. Data were reviewed for significant differences among groups and across the groups.

Among Group Differences

Several differences among the three ability-grouped classes were significant at the .01 level.

- The high group students' average vocabulary pretest scores were significantly higher than the low and middle groups' students.
- The low group students' average vocabulary posttest scores were significantly lower than those of the middle and high groups.
- The reading comprehension and total reading scores were significantly different among all three classes at both pretest and posttest.
- The vocabulary, reading comprehension, and total reading scores were significantly different among all three classes for both pretest and posttest at the .05 level.
- The number of books read by high group students from the Electronic Bookshelf was significantly more (.05 level) than the recreational reading of low and middle group students from that book list.

These results mean that there were significant differences among the three classes at the beginning of the year (before the pilot program) and at the end of the year (after the pilot program). This was true at the 95 percent confidence level on all three scores and at the 99 percent confidence level for reading comprehension and total reading.

Across Group Comparisons

Using the general linear models procedure, the total group's pretest-posttest differences were significant at the .02 level for vocabulary, reading comprehension, and total reading. Although this indicates that students made reading achievement gains overall, these results are misleading because the low group's average pretest-posttest differences were significantly lower that the middle and high groups' gains. A further analysis of the results by group highlights this issue, as indicated by the following table.

Pretest-Posttest Means
(in percentiles)

Group	N	Vocabulary		Comprehension		Total Reading	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
High	20	70	>72.4	70.8	>77	71.2	>75
Middle	25	54.6	>57.6	56.8	>60.3	55.8	>59
Low	13	44.6	>35.8	41.7	>33.4	43.2	>34

Overall, the low group students failed to maintain their relative position according to national norms, while the middle and upper group students made modest gains. These changes were statistically nonsignificant.

Comparisons with the Control Group

The mean percentile scores for the pilot group's pretest-posttest results were compared to the same scores for the control group. These data are summarized as follows:

Pretest-Posttest Means
(in percentiles)

Group	N	Vocabulary		Comprehension		Total Reading	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Pilot	58	57.7	>57.8	58.3	>60	58.3	>58.9
Control	62	63.3	>64.2	66.1	>65	65.4	>65.2

As indicated, the control group had slightly higher achievement levels than the pilot group on both pretest and posttest scores for all measures. When gain scores were compared, the control group showed a slight gain in vocabulary (+0.9 percentile points) and a slight loss in comprehension (-1.1 percentile points) while the scores for total reading were essentially the same. The pilot group showed a slight gain in comprehension (+1.7 percentile points) while maintaining pretest levels in vocabulary and total reading.

Using the t-test procedure, there were no significant differences in the gain scores of the two groups. This held true across the vocabulary and comprehension subtests as well as the total reading results.

These results suggesting no significant differences between the achievement gain scores for the pilot and control group must be interpreted in light of the nature of the cognitive achievement tests used to measure students' academic growth and the fact that the literature-based program was a pilot project. Given these factors, a failure to achieve significant change is not surprising. Impact on academic growth as measured by standardized reading tests can be more validly assessed in two to three years, assuming the same general instructional approach is maintained for each group.

Qualitative Data Findings

Additional data were gathered through interviews with the sixth grade teachers and students from each of the three classes, observations of reading instruction in each classroom, and a timeline of core books read by the classes during the year. These data extend the results of the pre-post surveys and pretest-posttest achievement scores.

Teacher interviews:

Overall, the teachers seemed satisfied with the change in instructional approaches. The teachers specified several goals early in the year:

- to put students into whole texts rather than short stories as preparation for the longer texts encountered in secondary schools;
- to get students more interested in reading "good literature";
- to give the students ownership to learning (e.g., choice of books read as a class; identifying vocabulary words pertinent to the students); and
- to share the love of reading these teachers enjoyed when they were students.

Specific outcomes mentioned as evidence that there is progress toward these goals include students talking about books with each other, students reading more and tackling harder books than in the past, and students going beyond the classroom-required reading. For example, each teacher spontaneously shared at least one example of a child who appeared to be "turned on to reading" by the end of the year as evidenced by an increased amount of recreational reading or comments from a parent or grandparent. Two teachers mentioned that numerous students read the second and third books in an author's trilogy after reading the first book of a series in class. This occurred with both the White Mountains and Indian in the Cupboard series.

The amount of recreational reading done by students seems to have increased dramatically. For example, 52 of the students read from the Electronic Bookshelf when they were in the fifth grade. Within the first half of sixth grade forty-four of these students (85%) had surpassed the total amount of recreational reading done from this list during the entire fifth grade.

Instructional Timeline

Core books were read by the entire class or a group of approximately 10-12 students within a class. The high group read one book as a whole class at the beginning of the year. During the rest of the year, each student chose and read six core books from among 12 titles offered after the initial core book. Thus, each high group student read a total of seven core books in class. In addition, high group students were expected to read six books every six weeks for recreational reading. All total, high group students were expected to complete 43 books during the year.

A similar format was used with the middle group. They completed one book as a class and an additional four or five core books from among ten titles offered, for a total of five or six core books. The recreational reading standard for the middle group was four books every six weeks. Altogether, middle group students were expected to read a total of 29 or 30 books during the school year.

The low group read all core books as a whole group and completed four titles during the school year. In addition, students were expected to independently read three books every six weeks. Thus, low group students were expected to read a total of 22 books during the school year. The reading expectation for the high group (43 books) was almost double that expected of students in the low group.

Classroom Observations and Student Interviews

Two students were randomly selected and interviewed from each group. Four of the six students stated that they liked sixth grade

reading class better than their fifth grade reading class; the other two students expressed no preference. These students offered the following suggestions for refining the current instructional format.

- Mix all sixth grade students in each class so "kids who aren't as good readers can learn from those who are." (Students seem very aware that expectations are different among the classes. One student summarized this view as "being in the low group doesn't bother me because the work is easier...")
- "Read more books and have more books to choose from than two (titles) every six weeks."
- Have vocabulary discussions. When looking up answers, "accept meanings from different dictionaries than the blue (classroom) dictionary."
- "Let students read whatever books they want" and write book reports (in lieu of or in addition to core books).
- "Don't do so many worksheets."
- "Get the books over with by reading them faster." Focus on discussing the chapters you're reading that day.
- "Discuss the books more instead of just looking up vocabulary words and writing answers to questions." (During the classroom observations more "student talk" was noted in the high group and more "teacher talk" in the middle and low groups.)

Conclusions and Recommendations

Overall, the initial year of the Galveston Elementary School's sixth grade literature-based reading program appears to have been a good one. Survey results support that many students have a better attitude toward reading at the end of the year than when they entered sixth grade. The group's attitude toward reading appears more positive than that of sixth graders from a nearby school. The average reading achievement levels of the middle and high groups demonstrated maintenance plus a slight gain. Teachers and the majority of students interviewed express a preference for literature-based reading over basal text reading instruction.

However, an important area for attention in future versions of this program is the reading instructional program provided the low group of students. While this group's attitude toward reading was generally improved, their reading achievement scores showed a considerable loss, and significantly less reading was expected of these students. Also disconcerting was the percent of students who expressed declining opinions of themselves as readers. Forty-six percent of this group described themselves as "one of the poorest readers in my room" on the post-survey even though 69% had said they "read about the same as many people in my room" on the pre-survey.

The combination of these factors (loss in achievement + limited amount of reading + lower self-concepts as readers) strongly suggests that the structure of this year's pilot did not meet the needs of the low group. In fact, ability-grouped instruction limits some of the flexibility of a literature-based approach and introduces negative elements found with labeling and tracking in ability-grouped instruction. In addition, the pre-set reduced expectations for the low group counter strong research evidence on the value of high expectations for students.

The data from this pilot project, the underused potential of a literature-based instructional approach, and substantial research on expectations and appropriate instruction for low-achieving students all lead to a specific recommendation: eliminate ability-grouping and group students heterogeneously for literature-based reading instruction. This aligns with literature-based approaches described in professional literature which stimulate reading via experiences

with quality books, divergent discussions, and instruction aimed at helping students develop the strategies used by proficient readers.

Results from specific items on the surveys and the perspective added by the qualitative data suggest other areas of potential refinement in the program. These include looking for ways to adjust the pace of core book instruction and to increase students' interest in the books, carefully selecting assignments which include options for "student ownership" and help students see the relevance of instructional activities, reducing the number of worksheet activities, and adjusting the perceived differences in expectations for high, middle and low-achieving readers.

Appendix A consists of two articles which can provide some research-based ideas for these refinements. Both of these articles review critical elements and potential flaws in literature-based reading programs. In James Zarrillo's article "Teachers' interpretations of literature-based reading" (Reading Teacher, October, 1989), the core book approach is discussed and the author spells out specific suggestions and concerns for effective implementation. In the second article, Hiebert and Colt's "Patterns of literature-based reading instruction (Reading Teacher, October, 1989), the authors emphasize ways to use this approach in providing a "total reading program" to "develop thoughtful, proficient readers."

Based on the data reviewed in this study and the current research on literature-based reading, the following recommendations are offered for consideration as the 1990-91 reading instructional program is planned.

1. Reconsider the philosophy underlying ability-grouped instruction and different requirements based on perceptions of students' abilities and motivation. There is an increasing amount of research supporting the importance of high expectations and encouraging the use of heterogeneous and cooperative learning strategies to the advantage of all students.

2. Look for ways to make it clear that all students can be good readers and then give students motivating options which encourage personal reading goals. For example, a "sliding scale" can set a uniform minimum requirement for recreational reading with an expectation that each student sets a higher goal every six weeks. The higher goal could be reached in several ways: reading more books, reading thicker books, tackling harder books, doing additional reading by the same author or on the same topic as a core book, etc. Students could "contract" with their teacher for each new goal.

3. Select a limited set of strategies and activities particularly well-suited for each core book rather than using the same blueprint ("routinized skillsheets") for each book. Teachers can identify important curricular objectives and proficiencies needed by competent sixth-grade readers and then use the core books as vehicles to teach those objectives and proficiencies.

4. Capitalize on core books as springboards to a variety of reading and writing possibilities while maintaining a pace that keeps students interested and gives them "ownership"/choices in the instructional program. For example, provide group instruction on a core book for two weeks, using a well-chosen and limited set of instructional activities. The third week each student is given the choice of an independent reading/writing project, a collaborative group project extending the topic studied in the core book, or additional in-depth study of the core book led by the teacher and students. Each six weeks the student must complete at least one independent project and one collaborative project.

5. Emphasize open-ended questioning and higher order thinking skills through discussions and independent or paired assignments rather than skillsheet activities. Discussion strategies such as brainstorming and "Great Books" questioning may be helpful in increasing the amount of student talk as students work to find "possibilities" rather than "the correct answer".

6. Consider using literature portfolios as a technique to record students' activities and recreational reading. The portfolios can serve as a way to profile students' progress in reading.

7. Provide teachers with staff development time and resources to support their efforts to confidently and comfortably implement a quality literature-based reading program.

Appendix A

Zarillo, James (1989). Teachers' interpretations of literature-based reading. Reading Teacher, 43, 22-29.

Hiebert, E.H., & Colt, J. (1989). Patterns of literature-based reading instruction. Reading Teacher, 43, 14-21.

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Patterns of literature-based reading instruction

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Recent reports on the state of American reading instruction and reading materials share a common theme. To prepare proficient readers, classroom reading programs must provide children with many, varied opportunities to read high-quality literature (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Goodman, Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1988). Schools have responded to this message in several ways. In some schools, tradebooks have become the entire reading program. In other schools, sustained silent reading periods have been reinstituted after falling into disuse during the heavy domination of skills-oriented reading programs of the 1970s. Furthermore, the amount and quality of literature have increased in textbook programs as a result of mandates by textbook adoption states to include more high-quality literature (e.g., English-Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools, 1987).

Unlike changes in writing instruction which have been driven by a shared model of the writing process (Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983), a number of very different perspectives have been proposed for using literature as part of reading instruction (Cullinan, 1987). Some advocate literature programs that are based on children's self-selections (Veatch, 1978). Others stress programs in which groups of students study the same books through teacher-led discussions (Great Books, 1984). Work on cooperative learning (Stevens, Madden, Slavin, & Farnish, 1987) has led to still other formats such as students cooperatively selecting books and engaging in follow-up activities.

While these different programs are often viewed as competing ways to structure reading experiences, they can be combined to form a comprehensive literature-based reading program. Specific elements of programs, such as opportunities for students to select literature, accomplish unique functions in the development of proficient readers. Two elements require attention in the design of effective literature-based reading instruction: the instructional format and who selects the literature.

Two dimensions of literacy programs

Whereas instructional format commonly refers to grouping scheme (e.g., small group, whole class), a grouping scheme itself represents assumptions about instruction and student autonomy. In a whole class format, the source of the learning experience is the teacher. In contrast, independent contexts require students to be autonomous. There are situations also when teachers and students collaborate, as when small groups are formed according to interest or skill need. Research on effective learning shows that students benefit from all types of experiences: guidance from the teacher in small or large group settings, student-teacher interactive settings, and application in independent or peer settings (Brophy & Good, 1986). A diet of only instruction or independent practice does not produce well-rounded readers. The Figure presents the range of instructional formats that make up effective reading programs, with teacher-led instruction and independent student application being on opposite ends of the continuum and teacher-and-student interaction in the middle.

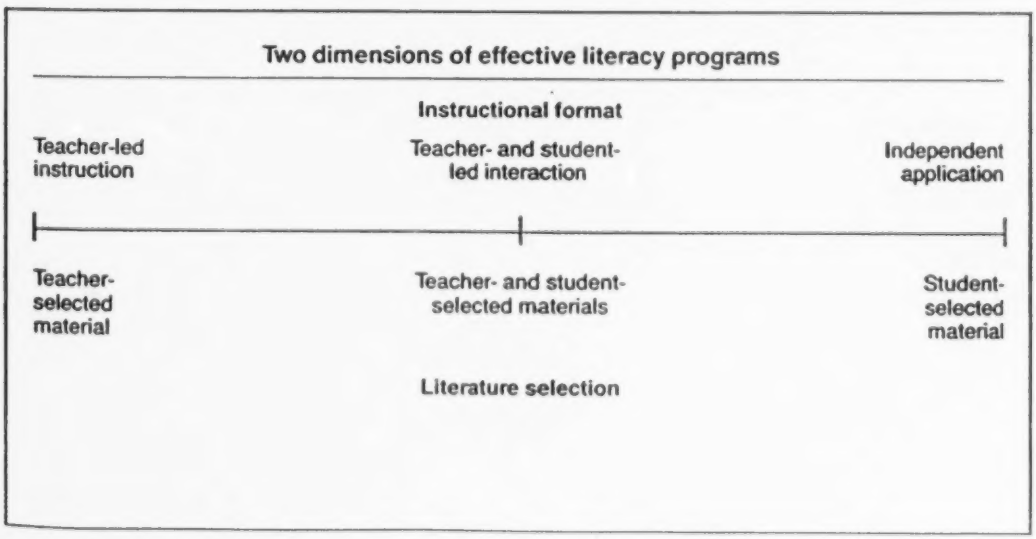
A second dimension, literature selection, pertains to the content of the reading program. The two ends of the literature continuum also appear on the Figure. At the one end is selection by a teacher or even members of school, district, or state curriculum committees who identify literature that represents the themes, genres, and authors of local and more universal cultures. Children select from among such books in school or classroom libraries, but exposure to local and national literary classics cannot be left to happenstance. Reading and discussing the critical pieces of literature from local and broader cultures depend on teachers' guidance.

Selection of literature by students occurs at the other end of the continuum. Good readers, as Anderson, Higgins, and Wurster (1985) have shown, know how to select literature relevant to their interests and reading levels; poor readers do not. Such abilities reflect experiences in selecting literature on one's own. If the literary regimen consists only of teacher-assigned reading, it should be of little surprise that students are poor at selecting material that is appropriate to their interests and levels.

A middle point exists on the continuum where teachers and students share the process of selecting literature. The teacher might begin the selection process by presenting students with several different books from which students make choices, or the teacher might select a genre such as fairy tales and guide students in its critical features after which students select their own fairy tales.

Three patterns of literature-based reading instruction

Three distinct patterns of literature-based reading instruction that blend different aspects of instructional format and literature selection



Patterns of literature-based reading instruction

Pattern	Examples of Implementation	Functions
One: Teacher-led instruction/ teacher-selected literature	One text for all students; strategy lessons	Guidance in critical strategies; opportunities to extend interpretations
Two: Teacher- & student-led interaction; teacher & student selection of literature	Multiple copies of material; specific skills instruction, especially in content areas	Guidance in critical strategies; opportunities for peer interaction and cooperative selection of literature
Three: Independent application/ student-selected literature	Sustained Silent Reading; independent reading periods that are central to small & large group discussions & teacher guidance	Students develop selection abilities; students assume responsibility for their own learning

can be identified. All patterns can be combined to form a total reading program rather than each operating as autonomous entities. Descriptions of these patterns illustrate their unique functions, each of which is summarized in the Table.

Pattern 1: Teacher-selected literature in teacher-led groups. Students benefit from having "thinking made public" (Paris, 1986). Teachers' expertise lies in sharing the critical features of strategies, text structures, and content with developing readers. This does not mean that teachers didactically present strategies or that the material derives only from the teacher. Modeling, demonstrating, and coaching best occur in tasks where information is critical to students. For example, a lesson on the structure of fables might emanate from children's inquiries as they attempt to write fables similar to the ones they have read.

There are also times in effective reading programs when teachers guide students in the selection of literature. When teachers want to facilitate children's thinking about particular themes, genres, or authors, they select passages for students to read or guide students to a particular set of books.

A glimpse into a sixth-grade classroom illustrates the manner in which teachers can guide students in strategies and literature selection. This teacher, Ms. Baum, provides daily periods of about 15 minutes for discussion and guidance in strategies. Short, content-rich passages are used for these sessions. One lesson, for example, used the Declaration of Independence, while another used a short story by O. Henry. Unlike settings where all students have read different passages, students have spirited discussions about their interpretations of the shared content.

While teacher guidance in strategies and selection of literature has a central place in a reading program, all too often this role is defined narrowly. This narrow interpretation situates the teacher as the source of knowledge and the director of all learning in the classroom. Such a narrow interpretation can even be found in recent efforts at literature-based reading instruction in which literature selections are accompanied by teachers' manuals that consist of scripted lessons or workbook-like activities. A balance must be achieved between teacher guidance and independent reading. Such a balance occurs when teacher guidance takes place within the context of needs that become apparent as students talk and write about what they have read.

Pattern 2: Teacher- and student-selected literature in teacher- and student-led small groups. Similar to large and independent settings, small group settings provide a unique opportunity for fulfilling instructional and self-selection needs in literature-based classrooms. One function that small groups serve well is a focusing of needs and interests. Even though many young children are interested in dinosaurs, it is unlikely that all of the children in a class will choose to read books on that

topic. Even though the compare-contrast structure may be difficult for some children, all children in a class will not need additional discussion and modeling of the structure. Small groups allow children with a particular interest or need to work with the teacher and one another.

The size of small groups means that children have more opportunities to share their interpretations of passages, describe favorite books, and talk about strategies that work for different reading purposes. Furthermore, responsibility for learning can also be fostered in small groups as children work with one another and assume leadership roles.

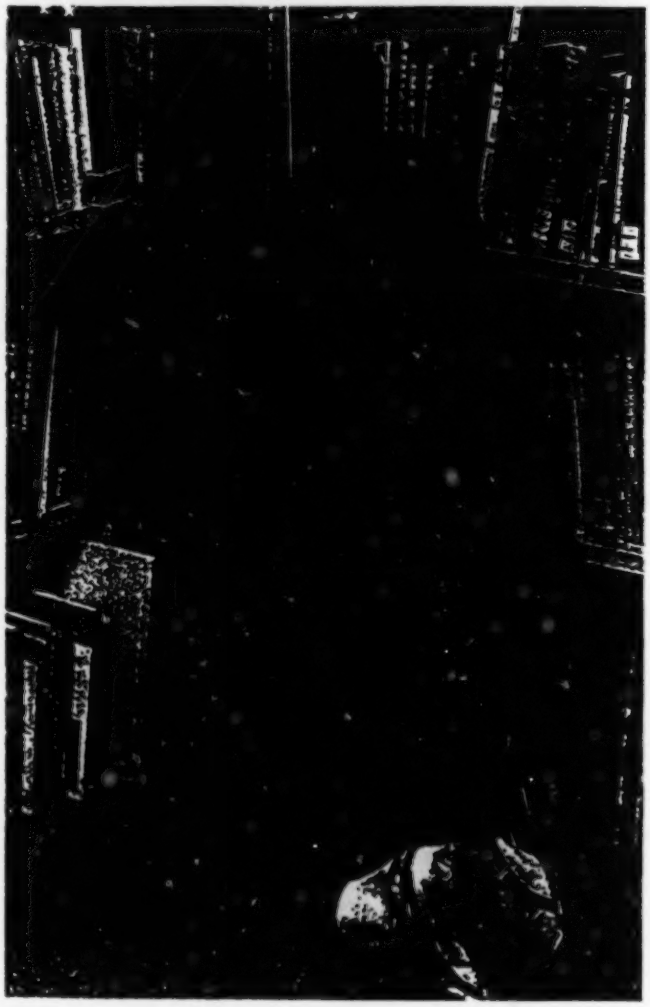
Small groups in literature-based programs serve a very different role than the ability groups that were the primary context for reading instruction in previous eras. Both the criteria and longevity of literature groups differ from the traditional reading-group format. The basis for membership in literature groups is flexible rather than lock-step like ability groups. Sometimes, small groups are formed on the basis of interest; sometimes on the basis of specific needs, such as an understanding of structural units of words. The composition and purposes of literature groups change frequently.

A flexible use of small groups can be seen in Ms. Greenwood's second-grade classroom. From the beginning of the school year, students meet in small groups, but the focus and the composition of these small groups change often over the year. At the beginning of the year, Ms. Greenwood gives talks about a handful of books every several weeks, and children choose book groups for that time period. As children become more adept in reading, groups are formed on the basis of student-selected topics. A group may share an interest in animal stories, for example, with the group's discussions focusing on similarities and differences in their books. At other times, Ms. Greenwood creates groups consisting of children with similar needs such as difficulty in using context clues in figuring out unknown words in text.

As with other patterns, there are difficulties when the pattern of small group work is used as the total reading program. To apply strategies on their own and to develop a community of readers and writers, children need time in independent and large group settings. However, the small group format allows the shift of responsibility for learning to move from teacher to students.

Pattern 3: Student-selected literature read independently. The ultimate test of an effective literacy program is the ability of children to read independently. Lifelong reading depends on children having numerous opportunities to participate in authentic reading situations within the classroom community. Far too frequently, instruction has emphasized "practice" of reading skills for some future, undefined purposes. When students practice skills, the tasks are often tedious and lack a connection to application beyond the classroom. When literacy is used for authentic rea-

Students need opportunities to select literature relevant to their interests and reading levels. Photo by Mary Lorenzoni-Anderson



sons within the classroom, children see reading as a means of accomplishing meaningful purposes such as sharing ideas with others.

Independent reading in literature-based programs adds a dimension that is not present in typical "recreational reading" periods in which children's interpretations of their independent reading are rarely shared. Times to read "just for one's self" are necessary, but other opportunities for independent reading also form the core of the literature-based program. Unfamiliar vocabulary and questions about authors' techniques and points of view become the basis for instruction. Ideas gained from independent reading are shared and challenged in small and large group discussions.

Mr. McFarland's sixth-grade classroom illustrates the benefits provided by independent reading. Each day begins with a period wherein students and their teacher read silently in material that has been selected independently, cooperatively, or, sometimes by the teacher. The classroom is quiet—a time of grounding for children and teacher. More than enjoyment and a healthy emotional climate, however, are created by this independent reading period. This independent reading becomes the source for the discussions and instruction that continue throughout the school day. Children draw on their reading as they select genres and topics during daily writing periods. A sharing period revolves around the ideas that children have gained in their reading. Teacher demonstrations focus on the techniques used in the books children are reading independently. A discussion about the use of Latin roots in figuring out unknown words begins with children leafing through their literature logs and identifying unfamiliar words that have arisen in their recent independent reading.

Independent reading is a critical component of the classroom literacy program. Nonetheless, if a program consists only of children's independent reading, with little coaching or guidance in small or large group settings, children will not gain the critical reading strategies and alternative points of view that are necessary to be proficient readers.

Illustrations of total reading programs with the three patterns

Although the three patterns illustrate ways of accomplishing different aspects of reading, there is no set formula for combining the patterns to form a comprehensive reading program. The three patterns can be configured in very different ways in classrooms: at a given point of time, over a school year, or even over children's school careers. Descriptions of two classrooms illustrate different configurations of these patterns in forming reading programs. These illustrations by no means cover all possible combinations of these patterns, but they do demonstrate their flexibility.

Simultaneous use of patterns. A visitor to Mr. Becker's fifth-grade classroom would see all three patterns in use during any given day. Since Mr. Becker places a premium on students' independent reading of high-quality literature, each day begins with a period in which the children and their teacher read from books they have selected from the classroom and school library. In literature logs, they register the starting and completion dates of their books, new vocabulary, and comments about passage content. These literature logs become the basis for children's sharing in large and small group settings.

To ensure exposure to different interpretations of the same passage, Mr. Becker schedules discussion groups several days a week. These groups illustrate the second pattern in which students and teacher share in the selection of literature and instructional leadership. Each month, a different committee of students works with Mr. Becker to select a topic and passages for these group discussions. Some of the topics lend themselves to expository passages like one group's selection of "The Environment," while other topics lead themselves to narrative passages or a combination of expository and narrative passages such as "Friendship," which was a topic selected by another group. All students have read the passage prior to the discussion and are ready to identify points of disagreement or agreement. In discussions early on in the year, Mr. Becker acts as moderator. As the year progresses, students assume more responsibility for the discussions.

Mr. Becker implements the first pattern, teacher-selected literature and teacher-led instruction, in science and social studies instruction. The text structures and conceptual load of expository text often leave students struggling. Consequently, Mr. Becker pro-

vides instruction on using reading strategies with expository text. He forms small groups by different means for different units (need, interest, or peer choice) and then works with groups on vocabulary, text structure, metacognitive strategies, and concepts.

Sequential use of patterns. In Ms. Rodriquez's third-grade classroom, the three patterns can be identified, but they occur at different points during a semester. For half of every quarter, a modified version of the first pattern, teacher selection of literature and teacher direction of instruction, is used to organize the reading period as the entire class reads the books that Ms. Rodriquez has selected. After an independent reading period of a particular book, Ms. Rodriquez moderates a discussion to which students come prepared with summaries, questions, and reactions.

For the other half of each quarter, the third pattern guides the reading period with students selecting their own books. They write their responses to selections in literature logs that are shared with the teacher and write letters to peers, persuading or dissuading them from reading the same book.

To implement her objective of developing strategic readers of expository text, Ms. Rodriquez uses a combination of patterns as students read social studies and science material. Sometimes, students read expository passages independently, preceded or followed by a lesson in which the teacher models strategies and leads the discussion. Other passages are used in a format that Ms. Rodriquez models after Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1986). Students take turns in small groups applying strategies such as summarizing and question-asking and discussing their interpretations. Students also have a voice in determining the content for these sessions, evidence of the second pattern. For example, the nationally-distributed textbook has little information on the state's history, so students locate material relevant to their interests such as books on the history of Native American groups indigenous to their area.

These examples show how the three patterns can be combined to accomplish different functions. There are, of course, many other combinations. For example, teachers might move from a concentration on teacher-oriented instruction and selection of literature to more student autonomy in activities and selection of literature over the course of a year. Whatever the combination, at one point or another, reading programs need to provide opportunities in all activities represented on the two continua.

Conclusion

Many teachers have changed their reading programs dramatically by attending workshops, classes, and conferences and through reading books and journal articles. In other settings, the incentive for change comes from administrative edict, rather than from the grassroots. To expect rapid implementation of literature-based reading instruction when the impetus comes from the top-down is to court disaster. Just as students move through different stages in learning something new, teachers move through various stages in relation to a particular change (Hall & Loucks, 1978). The three patterns of literature-based reading instruction can guide teachers as they make changes in their reading programs. For some teachers, an appropriate change may be to spend a term of the schoolyear in tradebooks that a reading group shares or to use the literature selections in textbooks in more inventive ways. As teachers become comfortable with different grouping patterns and have confidence in their students' ability to select good literature, opportunities for student selection can become a more integral part of their reading programs.

Literature-based reading instruction, whether in the context of the literature of tradebooks or textbooks, can take a number of different forms. When teachers focus only on independent reading of student-selected material, they fail to consider the guidance that students require for becoming expert readers. A focus on teacher-led instruction fails to develop the independent reading strategies that underlie lifelong reading. A total reading program should contain various combinations of teacher and student interaction and selection of literature so that children develop as thoughtful, proficient readers.

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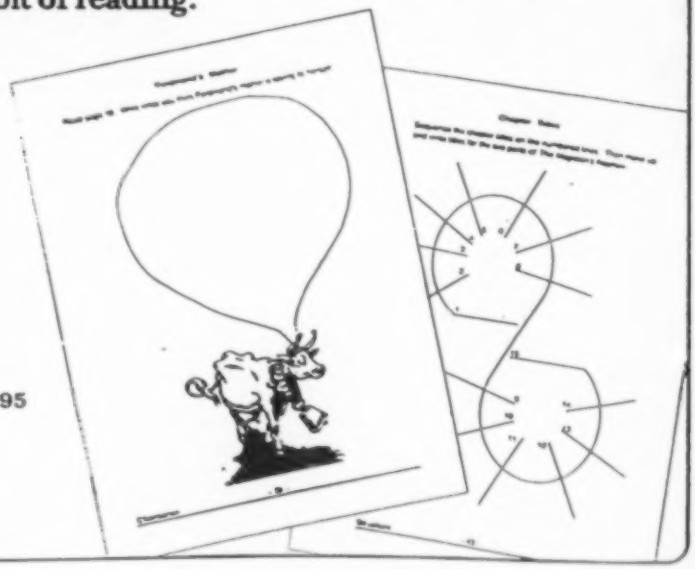

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James Zarrillo

Teachers' interpretations of literature-based reading

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The current popularity of literature-based reading programs is evident to anyone who has attended national conventions or read journals in the field of reading education. In California, the recently adopted *English-Language Arts Framework* (1987) has made a literature-based curriculum a policy mandate. I believe that the movement toward literature-based reading has been prompted by three issues: (a) a call for an enhanced role for quality children's literature in the elementary school (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Bennett, 1986); (b) the advocacy for whole language approaches to literacy development, which depend on children's books for reading material (Altwerger, Edelsky, & Flores, 1987; Goodman, 1986; Newman, 1985); and (c) the professional decision making of teachers who do not want their reading programs dictated by basal materials (Shannon, 1987; Zarrillo, 1988).

Practitioners in the field, however, have many questions about defining and developing literature-based reading programs. The purpose of my research was to explore the various interpretations teachers have of literature-based reading. Specifically, three interpretations were generated by observing elementary classrooms in southern California.

Two studies

In 1986-87 five elementary teachers were selected for in-depth case studies (Zarrillo, 1988). During the 1987-88 school year, data were gathered on an additional 18 teachers representing all elementary grade levels. The purpose of both studies was to compile descriptions of functioning literature-based programs. I had three research questions: (a) What literature was used? (b) How did teachers teach with literature? and (3) What activities did students pursue?

All classrooms were in public schools in Los Angeles County. I defined *literature-based reading* as instructional practices and student activities using novels, informational books, short stories, plays, and poems. *Literature*, then, was used as an inclusive term for a variety of reading materials; it was not an

indicator of quality. Some of what students read was written by the children themselves. The reading material in a literature-based program had to meet two criteria. The literature was not rewritten for instructional purposes, and the literature supplanted, not supplemented, the basal reading program. Data were gathered at all elementary grade levels. The student population included children of all reading abilities who came from a wide range of family incomes.

I was especially interested in observing teachers who were effective in teaching with children's books. My definition of the effective use of literature-based reading has three features: (a) the teacher, the principal, and I were pleased with the overall quality of student reading and writing exhibited in the classroom, (b) children had positive attitudes toward the reading program, and (c) the teacher planned to continue or expand literature-based reading the next school year, and the principal concurred with this decision. All 5 of the teachers in the first study and 10 of the teachers in the second study met this definition.

Qualitative data were gathered through the use of ethnographic techniques. I interviewed administrators, teachers, and students. All interviews were unstructured, encouraging those interviewed to talk with a minimal amount of direct questioning. Classroom observations were recorded in field notes. Samples of student writing and drawing were further data sources. Data analysis involved the search for patterns occurring across classrooms. The objective was to categorize teachers' interpretations of literature-based reading.

Findings: Teacher's interpretations

Analysis of classroom practices revealed there was considerable diversity among the teachers' philosophical stances toward reading. Most taught from the perspective that reading is a process that develops through use, that children learn to read by reading, that the language arts should be integrated in the elementary curriculum, and that literacy is more readily acquired when language is used to communicate messages. A second group of teachers, although substituting literature for textbooks, held the perspective that reading is a subject to be taught, that children learn to read by mastering a series of skills, that reading should occupy a separate time period from the other language arts, and that literacy is most readily learned when language is presented to children in teachable components. A third group attempted to mix philosophies, and their teaching included a combination of sequential skills lessons and whole language activities.

Through my observations, I identified three interpretations of literature-based reading: (a) the core book, (b) the literature unit, and (c) self-selection and self-pacing. These three interpretations are described in the following sections which are organized by first describing the interpretation, next discussing how to implement it successfully, and then addressing its limitations.

I was especially interested in observing teachers who were successful in teaching with children's books.

The core book

Core books have been identified as "those selections that are to be taught in the classroom, are given close reading and intensive consideration, and are likely to be an important stimulus for writing and discussion" (California State Department of Education, 1986, p. ix). In Grades 2-6, there was a classroom set of a novel which all children read, or had read to them, and then used to complete assignments. In kindergarten and first grade, 2 to 5 days were devoted to activities springing from a book, often a big book, that had been read aloud.

Teachers used a variety of sources for teaching ideas for core books. Some used Charles Reasoner's *Teacher's Guides to Yearling Books* (1975) or *Response Guides for Teaching Children's Books* by Albert Somers and Janet Worthington (1979). One teacher used ideas from the periodical *The WEB* (Huck & Hickman, 1988). Others relied on commercially-prepared activity packets. The publication of lessons and worksheets to be used with children's novels has become some-

thing of a cottage industry as small, independent producers compete against the larger publishing houses. Curriculum guides created by school districts were another source. Finally, some teachers called on their experience and imagination to develop activities to be used with the novels. The use of core books was the most prevalent interpretation of literature-based reading I observed.

Making it work. A consistent set of conditions emerged for the effective use of core books. First, the teacher selected a book he or she held in high regard. This attraction to a literary work was communicated to children, many of whom came to share the teacher's feeling. The first condition was only possible in a setting where an approved list had a large number of books from which teachers could choose, or where teachers had the opportunity to choose any book they deemed appropriate.

Second, the book was presented to the class. Most often this involved the teacher reading the book aloud with style and emotion. In a few cases, it meant children presenting a book or chapter of a book through Readers Theatre. Evidence of a moving presentation of a core book included small children asking for a picture book to be read again. In some upper-grade classrooms, students came to view the book as the equivalent of a televised mini-series and demanded that the next chapter be read immediately rather than at the usual time the next day.

The question was no longer if their classrooms should be literature-based, but how to develop the best literature-based program possible.

Effective teachers used the core books as springboards for independent reading and writing and gave children choices of activities. While reading McCloskey's *Make Way for Ducklings*, for instance, one second-grade teacher had several informational books available for children who wanted to read more about mallards. After a class read *Ramona the Pest*, a group of third graders decided to read all of Cleary's Ramona books. Writing in response to core books included free response in journals, letters to characters, poetry, advertisements, newspaper articles, and answers to interpretive questions. Finally, effective teachers placed core books in perspective as part of a broader literature-based program. Core books were followed by literature units, and there was time each day for independent reading and writing.

Concerns. Creating a list of books that all students must read has been criticized by prominent authorities on children's books. British critic Aidan Chambers (1983) wrote:

> There is a trap people professionally responsible for the literacy education of children tend to fall into: the belief that there are certain books which children, whether they like them or not, must be made to plod through in a kind of literary pilgrimage. (p. 75)

Huck, Hepler, and Hickman (1987) agree with this view, noting that while there are many quality books that educators believe children should not miss, there are none that should be required. They wrote, "Some literature programs recommend a sequence of particular books for study at each level. It is the position of these authors that there is no one book or twenty books, or one hundred books that should be read by all children" (p. 362).

The use of core books as the sole format for a literature-based program raises questions concerning children's differing reading interests and abilities. I observed a classroom of fifth graders who had spent 3 weeks on *The Witch of Blackbird Pond*. A third of the class could not read the book, even after the teacher had read it aloud. Another fifth-grade group was struggling with the 41 chapters and 339 pages of *On the Banks of Plum Creek*. Most of the boys in the class were bored with the story. One commented, "The only character I like is Nellie Oleson. I can't wait until we read something else."

In contrast to teachers whose use of a core book was enriching and exciting were teachers who used novels like textbooks. Instructional practices included ability grouping, round-robin reading, copying definitions of words, completing word recognition skill sheets, answering literal comprehension questions on Dittos, and completing fill-in-the-blanks tests. One school district actually created a workbook to accompany *Ramona the Pest*.

There were also classrooms where children's books were subjected to a time-consuming analysis of the literary elements. Particularly alarming was the practice of a few teachers who accepted only "correct" answers to interpretive questions or categories. For example, in one classroom, groups of children completed a chart with spaces for "character," "plot," and "setting" for each chapter of *The Indian in the Cupboard*. The teacher graded the charts on the basis of a checklist, assigning up to 3 points for each category. In contrast, effective teachers avoided turning the novels into textbooks. They accepted the books as children's literature and did not overemphasize literary analysis. Instead, these teachers encouraged students to interpret what they were reading through discussion, writing, art, and drama.

Children can choose to engage in unit projects or read silently.
Photo by Mary Loewenstein-Anderson

The literature unit

A literature unit has a unifying element such as a genre, an author, or a theme from social studies or science. The teacher read aloud books that were good examples of the unifying element. For instance, in a first-grade unit on rabbits, the teacher read aloud *Little Rabbit's Loose Tooth*, *The Country Bunny and the Little Gold Shoes*, *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*, *The Little Rabbit Who Wanted Red Wings*, *The Rabbits' Wedding*, and *Listen, Rabbit*.

In a fifth-grade unit on biography, time permitted only a single book, *Lincoln: A Photobiography*, to be read aloud. This teacher had three to five copies each of *What's the Big Idea, Ben Franklin?*, *Eleanor Roosevelt: First Lady of the World*, *A Weed is a Flower: The Life of George Washington Carver*, *The Secret Soldier: The Story of Deborah Sampson*, and *Ishi, the Last of His Tribe*. The teacher encouraged children to form groups to read these books. Many other biographies were available for self-selection, covering the full range of the children's reading abilities and interests. Children also read shorter biographies in anthologies, basal readers, and periodicals.

The teachers I observed using literature units varied in the specific design of their units. This variety is reflected in the professional literature as well. Coody and Nelson (1982), Glazer (1979), Glazer and Williams (1979), Huck, Hepler, and Hickman (1987), Monson (1987), Moss (1984), and Stewig (1980) have all written about forms of literature units. *Children's Literature in the Reading Program* (Cullinan, 1987) and Moss' (1984) *Focus Units* were popular reference sources for teachers.

Making it work. Successful implementation of a literature unit involved the teacher finding a balance of common activities and student-selected options. All students shared some experiences, such as the read alouds, response activities to the read alouds, and lessons relating to the unifying element. In a primary unit on fairy tales, for example, all of the children listened to the same 10 stories. They discussed, wrote, drew, painted, or acted in response to the stories. The teacher presented lessons to the whole group on fairy tale language patterns, characters, and settings. This teacher also taught students how to write friendly letters. Children wrote to fairy tale characters who wrote back via the teacher and instructional aide. There were many unit projects from which children could choose, and children who wanted to read silently or write creatively were encouraged to do so.

In classrooms where literature units worked well, there was flexibility in the process of forming student groups. Teachers grouped students both within and across variables such as reading ability, gender, and social status. Children also formed groups themselves on the basis of a shared interest in

a project or activity. Some children preferred to work independently.

Concerns. A problem in implementing a literature unit surfaced in the planning phase. Some teachers defined their unifying elements too narrowly. For a classroom of 30 children, approximately 40 books are necessary so that each child has a book and there are several others available for those who finish and need new ones. Therefore, units with narrow unifying elements (e.g., "Stuffed Animals That Come Alive") may not be feasible. Units on authors, such as E.B. White, who have written only a few children's books won't work unless all children in the class read at roughly the same level and multiple copies of titles are available. In one district, teachers overcame these problems by planning units the preceding year. Four or five paperback copies of essential books and single copies of others were purchased.

Another potential problem involves identifying frivolous themes such as units on cookies or kites that seemed to trivialize the curriculum. My observations revealed that when units were based on genres of literature, authors, social studies content, and topics from science, children were exposed to a wide spectrum of good literature, provided many opportunities for meaningful reading and writing, and introduced to important concepts from the content areas.

Self-selection and self-pacing

In self-selection and self-pacing programs children choose their reading material, read at their own pace, and conference periodically with the teacher. Perhaps better known as individualized reading, self-selection programs were popular in the 1950s and 1960s (e.g., Veatch, 1958, 1978). With the spread of whole language, interest in self-selection and self-pacing programs has intensified. Every teacher I observed allowed students to self-select books, and all classrooms had some regular time for silent reading. In all but one instance, self-selection was a supplement to a core book or a literature unit.

Making it work. The one teacher who did use an exclusive self-selection approach divided her reading/language arts period into three parts. First, her second-and third-grade children engaged in silent reading, usually for about 30 minutes. In the 30 minute period that followed, children wrote stories, poetry, or nonfiction; practiced handwriting; or worked in the teacher's individualized spelling program. Small groups worked on special projects such as planning a funeral for a hamster or creating a new system of classroom monitors. The teacher held writing conferences during this time and read aloud later in the day.

When a child finished reading a book, it was placed in a special basket with his or her name on a bookmark. The teacher scheduled conferences on the basis of who had completed a book, or who had gone more than 8 school days without a conference. During the 5-to 10-minute conference, children read aloud to the teacher, the teacher read to the child, and books were discussed. The teacher taught lessons on word recognition and meaning, the author's style, and cross-curricular relationships between books and other topics the class studied. The children I observed in this classroom made productive decisions, worked independently, and were accomplished readers and writers.

Concerns. When I asked other teachers why they didn't try self-selection and self-pacing as a comprehensive format for a literature-based program, five concerns were raised: (a) absence of administrative support, (b) lack of books in the classroom, (c) fear of a chaotic environment, (d) uneasiness about student performance on standardized reading tests, and (e) ignorance of how to implement this type of program.

Interestingly enough, the teacher who implemented self-selection exclusively confessed she had similar concerns when she first began using this approach. Time, a supportive environment, and a personal desire for excellence helped her find solutions. She taught in a school with a history of experimental approaches, and parents expected teachers to be child-centered and innovative. Though self-selection programs can be run with as few as 150 books in the classroom, this teacher gradually acquired over 1,000 books. She had clear and consistent standards and took the time to work with children who were troublesome. She stressed that the key factor to her success was convincing children she was interested in what they were reading and writing. Her students were good readers and writers and did well on standardized tests, as

have other students in self-selection programs (Krashen, 1985).

Success with literature-based reading: Common elements

The programs I observed were diverse in overall design and specific implementation. The following five categories of activities, however, were shared by the 15 teachers who met my definition of successful teaching with children's books. Though existing in some form in each of these classrooms, an activity's purpose, role, and format were defined by the interpretation of literature-based reading the teacher adopted.

1. *The presentation of literature.* Usually, this occurred by the teacher reading aloud. Some teachers made effective use of Readers Theatre as children presented a chapter of a novel or an entire book through a rehearsed oral reading. Other dramatic forms were used including professionally produced films and filmstrips and plays with student actors.

2. *Children's response to literature.* There were five categories of response to literature activities upon which successful teachers relied. All involved posing interpretive questions. Teachers asked children to speculate on what would happen next in a story, or what would have happened if something in the plot were altered. Teachers also asked children to evaluate a character's action. Was it justified? Was it prudent? Children enjoyed changing perspective, responding from the point of view of a character in a book. Children were encouraged to share personal experiences that related to occurrences in a book. Had children visited a place similar to one mentioned in a story? Did they know anyone like a book's main character? Open-ended responses to books permitted children to share their interests, quesitions, and interpretations after experiencing a book. One teacher simply asked children to "Write something about what we just read."

3. *Individualized time.* During this time, children read self-selected books. Some completed response activities to books they read independently (dioramas, advertisements, book jackets, mini-plays, journals, letters to characters). Some children kept journals while others worked on written projects in personal writing folders. When working with core books, most teachers placed this individualized period later in the day, usually accompanying Sustained Silent Reading and journal writing time. Teachers using literature units increased both the time allotted for individualized work and the range of choices available to children. In the self-selection classroom, this format was the reading program.

4. *Teacher-directed lessons.* In the self-selection classroom, direct teaching involved work on word recognition and meaning with children who needed extra help. The teacher preferred teaching through discussion on what each child was reading and writing. In literature units, lessons were taught relating to the unit's unifying element. For example, during a unit on Dr. Seuss, two lessons focused on Seuss's style as an illustrator. With core books, teachers focused on biographical information about the author, literary devices, character and plot development, and content area topics related to the core book. Core book teachers tended to work with the entire group; teachers of literature units preferred small groups; and the self-selection teacher conferenced with individuals.

5. *Projects.* Groups of children working cooperatively produced a variety of projects. For example, in a third-grade class, one group created a video version of chapter 1 in *Ramona the Pest*; another group completed a mural of Cleary's fictional Klickitat Street in Portland; and a third group wrote a book of predictions on what would happen to the characters in the Ramona books when they grew to be teenagers and adults. It should be noted that successful teachers considered these projects to be ancillary. Though worthy pursuits, projects related to books were not allowed to take time away from reading literature.

Looking ahead

The interpretations described and analyzed here should be viewed as starting points for discussion, criticism, and revision. All the teachers I studied planned to continue to teach with children's books. Indeed, the question was no longer *if* their classrooms should be literature-based, but *how* to develop the best literature-based program possible. This commitment sprang from the enthusiasm for books and competence in reading demonstrated by their students.

I would suggest that teachers consider

programs that involve all three interpretations. For example, in a fourth-grade classroom, a 2-week core book unit on *Ramona the Pest* could be followed by a 3-week unit on *Books with School Settings* (Jalongo & Renck, 1987). A 2- or 3-week period of self-selection and self-pacing would complete the cycle.

The environments of successful literature-based programs were typified by administrators who allowed teachers to design their reading programs and teachers who worked together to develop curriculum and activities. Researchers can help teachers by investigating specific teaching techniques in literature-based programs. The process of implementing a literature-based program, student response to literature, evaluation of student reading, and program design that accounts for individual differences are important topics for further study.

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Appendix B

Comparative Data Summaries

for

the How I Feel About Reading Survey

Fall Survey and Spring Survey Comparisons: Galveston Elementary School
Sixth Grade -- 1989-1990

1 = least positive response
2 = neutral or middle response
3 = most positive response

Responses summarized as percentages

Responses reported by ability-grouped classes: H = high group
M = middle group
L = low group

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

ITEM		PRE-TEST			POST-TEST			DIFFERENCES		
		%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3
1	L	69	19	12	60	27	13	-9	8	1
	M	35	55	10	38	58	4	3	3	-6
	H	17	66	17	9	67	24	-8	1	7
2	L	31	50	19	27	60	13	-4	10	-6
	M	30	65	5	33	54	13	3	-11	8
	H	22	72	6	5	71	24	-17	-1	18
3	L	12	44	44	7	60	33	-5	16	-11
	M	0	70	30	8	71	21	8	1	-9
	H	6	22	72	0	33	67	-6	11	-5
4	L	44	12	44	13	67	20	-31	55	-24
	M	20	15	65	21	21	58	1	6	-7
	H	17	22	61	5	24	71	-12	2	10
5	L	44	38	18	27	60	13	-17	22	-5
	M	20	55	25	21	71	8	1	16	-17
	H	6	44	50	5	43	52	-1	-1	2
6	L	12	69	19	13	60	27	1	-9	8
	M	10	60	30	4	75	21	-6	15	-9
	H	0	44	56	0	57	43	0	13	-13
7	L	38	38	24	47	13	40	9	-25	16
	M	20	50	30	25	54	21	5	4	-9
	H	11	39	50	5	9	86	-6	-10	36
8	L	19	19	62	7	33	60	-12	14	-2
	M	5	50	45	8	63	29	3	13	-16
	H	6	22	72	5	57	38	-1	35	-34
9	L	31	31	32	20	33	47	-11	2	15
	M	10	50	40	25	42	33	15	-8	-7
	H	12	44	44	0	38	62	-12	-6	18
10	L	18	44	38	33	47	20	15	3	-18
	M	60	20	20	50	33	17	-10	13	-3
	H	39	12	50	19	5	76	-20	-7	26
11	L	13	12	75	0	80	20	-13	68	-55
	M	10	75	15	25	58	17	15	-17	2
	H	16	12	72	10	38	52	-6	26	-20
12	L	38	18	44	40	20	40	2	2	-4
	M	20	40	40	54	33	13	34	-7	-27
	H	0	33	67	5	5	90	5	-28	23
13	L	12	38	50	0	47	53	-12	9	3
	M	0	75	25	29	58	13	29	-17	-12
	H	12	33	55	5	52	43	-7	19	-12
14	L	25	25	50	40	33	27	15	8	-23
	M	65	10	25	54	29	17	-11	19	-8

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	H	27	12	61	9	5	86	-18	-7	25
15	L	18	38	44	6	67	27	-12	29	-17
	M	10	75	15	29	54	17	19	-21	2
	H	17	17	66	9	43	48	-8	26	-18
16	L	12	44	44	27	60	13	15	16	-31
	M	20	70	10	25	71	4	5	1	-6
	H	6	50	44	0	52	48	-6	2	4
17	L	25	12	63	33	33	33	8	21	-30
	M	50	25	25	46	37	17	-4	12	-8
	H	11	11	78	5	14	81	-6	3	3
18	L	63	37	.	47	53	.	-16	16	.
	M	75	25	.	71	29	.	-4	4	.
	H	94	6	.	100	0	.	6	-6	.
19	L	56	44	.	87	13	.	31	-31	.
	M	70	30	.	58	42	.	-12	12	.
	H	83	17	.	81	19	.	-2	2	.
20	L	69	31	.	53	47	.	-16	16	.
	M	50	50	.	71	29	.	21	-21	.
	H	78	22	.	95	5	.	17	-17	.
21	L	31	69	.	67	33	.	36	-36	.
	M	45	55	.	37	63	.	-8	8	.
	H	56	44	.	57	43	.	1	-1	.
22	L	63	37	.	87	13	.	24	-24	.
	M	75	25	.	96	4	.	21	-21	.
	H	94	6	.	95	5	.	1	-1	.
23	L	56	44	.	67	33	.	11	-11	.
	M	75	25	.	71	29	.	-4	4	.
	H	83	17	.	86	14	.	3	-3	.
24	L	13	0	87	7	0	93	-6	0	6
	M	.	.	.	4	4	92	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	5	0	95	.	.	.
25	L	38	0	62	26	7	67	-12	7	5
	M	.	.	.	25	8	67	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	5	0	95	.	.	.
26	L	44	31	25	53	14	33	9	-17	8
	M	.	.	.	33	25	42	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	15	52	33	.	.	.
27	L	56	25	19	60	33	7	4	8	-12
	M	.	.	.	38	54	8	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	5	38	57	.	.	.
28	L	31	69	0	46	46	7	15	-23	7
	M	.	.	.	13	83	4	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	0	91	9	.	.	.

29	L	13	6	81	20	0	20	7	-6	-61
	M	.	.	.	13	0	87	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	5	0	95	.	.	.
30	L	37	25	38	14	26	60	-23	1	22
	M	.	.	.	58	21	21	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	48	38	14	.	.	.
31	L	6	50	44	7	40	53	1	-10	9
	M	.	.	.	8	17	75	.	.	.
	H	.	.	.	0	29	71	.	.	.

Fall Survey and Spring Survey Comparisons: Galveston Elementary School
Sixth Grade -- Total Group

1 = least positive response
2 = neutral or middle response
3 = most positive response

Responses reported for total group as percentages.

ITEM	PRE-TEST			POST-TEST			DIFFERENCES		
	%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3
1	37	50	13	33	54	13	-3	3	-0
2	28	64	9	22	61	17	-5	-3	8
3	5	48	47	5	56	39	0	8	-8
4	24	17	59	14	32	54	-11	16	-5
5	21	47	32	17	59	24	-4	12	-8
6	7	57	36	5	66	30	-2	9	-6
7	21	44	35	23	30	47	2	-14	12
8	9	34	58	7	54	39	-2	21	-19
9	15	44	40	16	39	46	0	-5	6
10	43	23	34	36	27	37	-8	4	3
11	13	40	48	14	56	29	2	17	-18
12	17	33	50	34	21	45	17	-12	-5
13	7	53	41	14	53	32	8	1	-9
14	43	14	43	36	22	42	-7	8	-0
15	14	47	39	17	53	30	3	6	-9
16	14	57	29	17	62	21	3	5	-8
17	31	17	51	29	28	42	-2	11	-9
18	79	21	.	75	25	.	-3	3	.
19	71	29	.	72	28	.	1	-1	.
20	64	36	.	75	25	.	11	-11	.
21	45	55	.	51	49	.	5	-5	.
22	79	21	.	94	6	.	15	-15	.
23	73	27	.	75	25	.	2	-2	.
24	.	.	.	5	2	93	.	.	.
25	.	.	.	19	5	76	.	.	.
26	.	.	.	32	31	37	.	.	.
27	.	.	.	32	44	24	.	.	.
28	.	.	.	16	77	6	.	.	.
29	.	.	.	12	0	74	.	.	.
30	.	.	.	45	28	28	.	.	.
31	.	.	.	5	26	69	.	.	.

Spring Survey Comparisons: Galveston Elementary Sixth Grade with the Control Group Sixth Grade

1 = least positive response
2 = neutral or middle response
3 = most positive response

Results reported in percentages for total groups.

ITEM	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			CONTROL GROUP			DIFFERENCES		
	%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3	%=1	%=2	%=3
1	33	54	13	60	39	1	-27	15	12
2	22	61	17	26	66	8	-4	-5	9
3	5	56	39	9	68	23	-4	-12	16
4	14	32	54	27	13	60	-13	19	-6
5	17	59	24	20	47	21	-3	12	-9
6	5	66	30	15	66	19	-10	-0	11
7	23	30	47	35	30	35	-12	-0	12
8	7	54	39	15	33	52	-8	21	-13
9	16	39	46	17	53	30	-1	-14	16
10	36	27	37	42	50	8	-6	-23	29
11	14	56	29	48	42	10	-34	14	19
12	34	21	45	56	17	27	-22	4	18
13	14	53	32	15	66	19	-1	-13	13
14	36	22	42	42	33	25	-6	-11	17
15	17	53	30	48	45	7	-31	8	23
16	17	62	21	36	63	1	-19	-1	20
17	29	28	42	45	34	21	-16	-6	21
18	75	25	.	68	32	.	7	-7	.
19	72	28	.	66	34	.	6	-6	.
20	75	25	.	79	21	.	-4	4	.
21	51	49	.	56	44	.	-5	5	.
22	94	6	.	87	13	.	7	-7	.
23	75	25	.	73	27	.	2	-2	.
24	5	2	93	3	5	92	2	-3	1
25	19	5	76	19	5	76	-0	0	0
26	32	31	37	28	32	40	4	-1	-3
27	32	44	24	21	48	31	11	-4	-7
28	16	77	6	8	81	11	8	-4	-5
29	12	0	74	28	3	69	-16	-3	5
30	45	28	28	47	24	29	-2	4	-1
31	5	26	69	8	31	61	-3	-5	8

HOW I FEEL ABOUT READING

NAME_____

____1. When I am not in school I like to spend
a. most of my time reading
b. some of my time reading
c. very little of my time reading

____2. When I have read a book I want to tell others about it
a. not very often
b. sometimes
c. very often

____3. When someone tells me about a good book
a. I hardly ever want to read it
b. I sometimes want to read it
c. I almost always want to read it

____4. I read books because
a. someone tells me to read them
b. I think I should read them
c. I like to read them

____5. At home I read
a. often
b. sometimes
c. almost never

____6. Most books are
a. not very interesting
b. all right
c. very interesting

____7.I would like
a. less time for reading in school
b. the same time for reading as now
c. more time for reading in school

____8. I like to read
a. many different kinds of stories
b. a few different kinds of stories
c. one kind of story

____9. If a friend gave me a book for my birthday
a. I would rather have something else
b. I would like the book O.K.

____10. I wish reading class would be
a. longer
b. shorter
c. the same as it is now

____11. The stories we read in class are
a. not interesting
b. all right
c. interesting

____12. Reading class seems to go
a. slow
b. neither fast nor slow
c. fast

____13. The things we do in reading class
a. help me a lot
b. help me some
c. do not help me

____14. I would like to have
a. more reading time in school
b. less reading time in school
c. just the same reading time

____15. The books we read in reading class are
a. very dull
b. all right
c. very interesting

____ 16. When I come to school
a. I can't wait for reading class
b. it doesn't matter what we do
c. I wish we could skip reading class

____17. The things we do in reading class are
a. fun
b. just something to do
c. work

18. Do I like to read? yes no

19. Do I read many different kinds of books? yes no

20. Can I classify books? yes no

21. Do I read newspapers? yes no

22. Do I read magazines? yes no

23. Do I read for many reasons? (pleasure, information, self-improvement) yes no

____24. I would rather
a. have my teacher tell me what to read
b. have my friends tell me what to read
c. pick out for myself what I will read

____25. I get more out of reading
a. if I read to myself
b. if I read to someone else
c. if someone reads to me

____26. I get more out of reading
a. when the whole group reads the same story
b. when our group reads the same story
c. when we each read different stories

____27. When we take turns reading out loud
a. I can hardly wait for my turn
b. I don't care whether I read or not
c. I wish my turn would never come

____28. I think that
a. I am the best reader in my room
b. I read about the same as many people in my room
c. I am one of the poorest readers in my room

____29. When we have reading class, I would rather
a. read to myself
b. read to my teacher
c. read with the group

____30. I would rather read
a. make believe stories
b. stories that tell me new things
c. true stories

____31. I would rather read
a. to myself
b. out loud
c. sometimes out loud, sometimes to myself